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N. Lemonnier, Catherine Homberg, Vincent Roche, Muriel Rocher,
Anne-Marie Boullier, Johann Schnyder

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Lemonnier N, Homberg C, Roche V, Rocher M, Boullier A. M, Schnyder J



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1 **Microstructures of bedding-parallel faults under multistage deformation: Examples**
2 **from the Southeast Basin of France.**

3

4

5 Lemonnier N. ¹, Homberg C. ^{1*}, Roche, V. ², Rocher M. ³, Boullier A. M. ⁴, Schnyder J. ¹

6

7 1: Sorbonne Université, CNRS-INSU, Institut des Sciences de la Terre de Paris, IStEP UMR 7193, 75005 Paris,
8 France.

9 2: Fault analysis Group, UCD School of Earth Sciences, University College of Dublin, Belfield, Dublin 4,
10 Ireland.

11 3: Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, PSE-ENV/SEDRE/UEMIS, BP 17, F-92262 Fontenay-aux-
12 Roses Cedex, France.

13 4: ISTerre, CNRS, Université Grenoble Alpes, F-38041 Grenoble, France.

14

15 * corresponding author

16

17 **Keywords:** Bedding-parallel faults, microstructures, clays, Southeast Basin of France, crack-seal
18 veins, opening fractures.

19

20 **Abstract**

21 We conducted a microstructural analysis of bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) in Mesozoic clay-rich
22 layers of the Southeast Basin of France. Various microstructures are recognized in thin sections under
23 a petrographic microscope and by cathodoluminescence. The microscale observations are combined
24 with outcrop observations from previous studies to provide insight into the origin of the BPFs and
25 their evolution during successive phases of deformation in a basin that had a polyphase tectonic
26 history. The BPFs have slipped while normal faults were formed during the Oligocene extension.
27 Then, another phase of slip occurred later during the basin inversion. These two phases of deformation
28 are expressed by recurrent crack-seal veins, pull-apart veins and stylolites. In addition, calcite veins
29 with an elongate blocky morphology suggest an opening normal to bedding before the reactivation.
30 The BPFs have initiated in clay layers that were shallow dipping. Such conditions may appear
31 mechanically unfavourable for an opening normal to bedding or a shearing parallel to bedding. We
32 suggest that the role of rock anisotropy is critical. This study furthermore demonstrates that BPFs can
33 be long-lived brittle structures that may record successive tectonic events.

34

35 1. Introduction

36 Bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) are shear planes lying sub-parallel to bedding in multilayer
37 sequences. They are usually observed in sedimentary basins in weak and compliant layers, and
38 particularly in clay-rich layers (e.g., *Gale et al., 2014*). Typically, the shearing component is
39 recognized through the presence of slickenlines at the outcrop scale (*Tanner, 1989; Evans, 1994;*
40 *Séjourné et al., 2005; Aydin and Engelder, 2014*) and crack-seal veins at the microscopic scale
41 (*Fowler et al., 1996; Koehn and Passchier, 2000; Fagereng and Byrnes, 2015*). The amount of
42 displacement that is accumulated on the BPFs is usually unknown because they lie parallel to bedding,
43 a configuration that precludes the occurrence of displaced sedimentary interfaces. Nevertheless, few
44 studies describe BPFs offsetting other fractures which provide markers for measuring displacement
45 (*Ferrill et al., 2000; Wibberley et al., 2007; Delogkos et al., 2017; 2018*). Based on such cross-cutting
46 relationships, *Delogkos et al. (2018)* demonstrated that BPFs are segmented, display displacement
47 gradients along their traces and die out at tips. BPFs appear therefore to have similar characteristics to
48 other types of faults, which is why we refer to such structures as bedding-parallel faults, rather than
49 bedding-parallel slips or bedding-parallel veins as it is commonly used in the literature.

50 The presence of BPFs can influence fractures and fluid flow in basins and can be of critical
51 importance in the frameworks of waste disposal sites, hydrocarbon reservoirs, or fluid injection
52 operations. A variety of influences have been demonstrated. For example, BPFs can modify fault zone
53 structures due to the process of fault restriction (*Gross et al., 1997; Roche et al., 2017*) and the
54 removal of wall rock asperities (*Waterson et al., 1998; Delogkos et al., 2017*). BPFs can control the
55 segmentation of hydraulic fractures and the associated microseismicity during fluid injection
56 operations in shale (*Rutledge et al., 2015; Rutter and Mecklenburgh, 2017; Stanek and Eisner, 2017*).
57 They can either act as a preferential fluid pathway along the beds during dilatational movement or
58 inhibit flow across bedding due to their mineralization (*Cox et al., 1991; Cosgrove, 1993; Sibson,*
59 *1996; Rutter and Mecklenburgh, 2017*). Finally, because they often occur as a set of several planes
60 (e.g., *Tanner, 1989; Nicol and Nathan, 2001; Delogkos et al., 2018*), BPFs can create a complex
61 permeable mesh in the rock medium and affect permeability anisotropy.

62 To evaluate the impacts of bedding-parallel faults on fracturing and fluid flow throughout the
63 history of a basin, one is required to assess their origin and their subsequent evolution during
64 deformation history. However, this is not always straightforward because the BPFs can have various
65 origins. They may occur, for example, with flexural-slip folding due to layer-parallel shortening or
66 thrusting (e.g., *Tanner, 1989; Fowler, 1996, Koehn and Passchier, 2000*), in the rock volume
67 surrounding normal faults due to fault-related folding (e.g., *Watterson et al., 1998; Ferrill et al., 2007;*
68 *Smart et al., 2009; Delogkos et al., 2018*) and during gravity-driven deformations (e.g., *Alsop et al.,*
69 *2020*). This diversity of context of formation raises critical questions concerning (i) the origin of BPFs
70 in areas of superimposed deformation stages; (ii) the relative timing of BPFs and more steeply dipping
71 faults; and (iii) the evolution of the BPF internal structures during deformation history.

72 In this paper, we describe BPFs in multilayered clay/limestone sequences from three different
73 areas. Previous outcrop observations from the same sites have been detailed in *Roche et al. (2012a),*
74 *(2012b)* and *(2017)*. Here, we focus on the microstructures of the BPFs and interpret their kinematics
75 based on previous microscopic observations of bedding-parallel veins (e.g., *Labaume et al., 1991;*
76 *Fowler, 1996; Koehn and Passchier, 2000; Fagereng and Byrnes, 2015*) and other veins (e.g.,
77 *Passchier and Trouw, 2005; Bons et al., 2012*). The studied areas lie in the Southeast Basin of France
78 which has a polyphase tectonic history. By combining the microscale and the outcrop observations, we
79 provide insight into the origin and evolution of BPFs during a complex deformation history.

80

81 **2. Geological setting and methodology**

82 *2.1. Geological setting*

83 The 40 000 km² Southeast Basin of France (Fig. 1) developed during Mesozoic time due to the
84 opening of the western Tethys (or Ligurian Tethys), with up to 10 km thick sediment infill
85 accumulated in the basin (*Dubois and Delfaud, 1989*). Extension began in the Early Triassic and lasted
86 until the Mid Cretaceous, with a main rifting phase in Early–Mid Jurassic time, followed by several
87 minor extensional periods (e.g., *Debrand-Passard et al., 1984; Dubois and Delfaud, 1989; Homberg*
88 *et al., 2013*). Folding and thrusting occurred during the Pyrenean and Alpine orogenies, with a

89 paroxysm during Late Cretaceous-Eocene and Miocene times, respectively (*Ford and Stahel, 1995*).
90 The contractional deformations were interrupted during the Upper Eocene-Oligocene by a major
91 rifting event that developed widely in Western Europe (*Bergerat, 1987*). The Valence Graben near the
92 studied areas (Fig. 1) is an example of a rift segment formed during this period (*Séranne, 1999*).

93 The BPFs have been studied in three sites, referred to as Saint-Didier, Trescléoux and
94 Espréaux. The sites are located in the western margin (Saint-Didier) and the Vocontian trough
95 (Trescléoux and Espréaux), a sub-basin of the Southeast Basin of France (Fig. 1). The host rocks
96 consist of alternating clay-rich layers and limestone layers of Late Oxfordian age in Saint-Didier and
97 Trescléoux sites and Hauterivian age in Espréaux site. The layers are shallow dipping (*ca.* 10°) in
98 Trescléoux and Saint-Didier and have been tilted in Espréaux (*ca.* 60° dipping) (Figs. 2 and 3). The
99 BPFs are observed in the clay-rich layers and identified as thin but continuous calcite veins
100 (millimetres thick), with a length that is limited only by the size of the outcrops (tens of meters long).
101 The angles between the BPF and the sedimentary interfaces do not exceed a few degrees. The BPF
102 bear slickenlines indicating a shear movement (see sub-section 2.2), but the amount of displacement
103 has not been established due to the lack of displaced markers. The clay-rich layers hosting the BPFs
104 are referred to below as clay layers, they are 30-200 cm thick and contain *ca.* 65% carbonate in the
105 Late Oxfordian sequence and *ca.* 48% in the Hauterivian sequence. The limestone layers are 20-70 cm
106 thick and contain *ca.* 80% of calcium carbonate (*Roche et al., 2014*).

107

108 2.2. Previous outcrop observations of bedding-parallel faults and other faults

109 In each site, other types of faults, including normal faults and strike-slip faults, are observed
110 adjacent to the BPFs. Analyses of these structures and their interactions with the BPFs have been
111 presented in a series of previous publications (*Roche et al., 2012a; 2012b, 2017*). Selected results of
112 these studies that constrain the kinematics and age of the movements on the BPFs are summarized
113 below. The normal faults that are adjacent to the BPFs strike NE-SW (Fig. 3). They predate the bed-
114 tilting in Espréaux site and have a few centimetres to a few decimetres throw (Figs. 2 and 3). They are
115 attributed to the Oligocene extension for two main reasons: (i) they offset Late Jurassic and Early
116 Cretaceous sequences that post-date the major extensional Early Jurassic deformations (Fig. 1) and (ii)

117 the direction of the computed minimum principal stress (σ_3) responsible for the normal faulting is
118 consistent with the extension direction during the Oligocene, i.e., WNW-ESE in Saint-Didier and
119 Trescléoux and NW-SE in Espréaux (Figs. 1 and 3).

120 A set of slickenlines found on the BPFs strikes WSW-ENE in Saint-Didier and NW-SE in
121 Trescléoux and Espréaux (Fig. 3). These directions are sub-parallel to the extension direction during
122 the Oligocene (blue slickenlines on the stereograph of the BPFs in Fig. 3), implying that the BPFs
123 were active at that time. Further outcrop analyses of the normal faults indicate that the BPFs acted as
124 restrictors for the vertical propagation of the normal faults in Trescléoux and Saint-Didier (Fig. 2 a and
125 c). This restriction is evidenced, for example, by normal faults abutting the BPF, folding of the BPF
126 ahead of the normal fault tips, and an increase in near-tip displacement gradient with increasing
127 maximum displacement (see *Roche et al., 2012b; 2016* for details). In Espréaux, the BPFs connect the
128 steeper dipping normal fault segments (Fig. 2b), creating complex coherent fault zones (*Roche et al.,*
129 *2012a*). Together, these observations suggest that the BPFs predated the normal faults, but that both
130 the BPFs and the normal faults were active during the Oligocene. The burial depth at that time is
131 unknown, but it is less than the maximum burial that occurred during the Mesozoic, i.e., 3000–6000 m
132 at Trescléoux and Espréaux and 1600–2700 m at Saint-Didier (*Roche et al., 2016* and references
133 therein).

134 The BPF bear a second set of slickenlines in Espréaux and Trescléoux (red slickenlines on the
135 stereograph of the BPFs in Fig. 3) that is oblique to the Oligocene extension direction described above,
136 i.e., NE-SW in Espréaux and NNE-SSW in Trescléoux. In Espréaux, this direction is slightly oblique
137 to the fold hinge trend (N170) and compatible with the ENE-WSW orientation of the Alpine
138 compression inferred from strike-slip faults in this site, taking into account the tilting of the fold hinge
139 (Fig. 3b). In Trescléoux, the NNE-SSW slickenlines on the BPF are parallel to the compression
140 direction deduced from strike-slip faults that may have occurred either during the Pyrenean or Alpine
141 phases, considering the regional stress calendar (Fig. 1). In Saint-Didier, no reactivation of the BPF
142 and no strike-slip faults are observed at the outcrop scale.

143

144 *2.3. Microscopic analysis*

145 Oriented rock samples were collected in each of the studied sites for preparing thin sections
146 (Tab. 1 and Fig. 2). The clay layers can be subject to severe surface alterations and pristine samples
147 were drilled at a depth of 10-20 cm with a 5 cm and 2.5 cm plug. Drilling frequently resulted in
148 destroying the samples and the procedure was repeated several times to recover samples of a suitable
149 size for the thin section preparation. In Espréaux, 4 different BPFs were targeted, but only 12 thin
150 sections from 2 BPFs were successfully retrieved (Tab. 1). In Trescléoux and Saint-Didier
151 respectively, 7 and 3 thin sections of a unique BPF were retrieved (Tab. 1). All the thin sections are
152 cut perpendicular to the BPF planes and parallel to the average directions of the extension-related
153 striation. Each thin section was observed under a petrographic microscope in optics. Selected areas
154 were further investigated with CL images obtained with a cold cathode of type Cathodyne-OPEA, 15–
155 20 kV and 200 to 400 $\mu\text{A mm}^2$ under a pressure of 0.05 Torr. A numerical Nikon D70 (800 ASA)
156 camera was used for the acquisition of the luminescence images.

157

158 **3. Description of microstructures**

159 The BPFs show a laminated aspect at the microscale, with stacked and millimetres thick sub-
160 parallel sheets of calcite separated by wall-rock slices (Fig. 4). In the following sub-sections we
161 combine observations from the different sites and present the main microstructures of the BPFs that
162 have been observed recurrently in the different thin sections (Tab. 1).

163

164 *3.1. Bedding-parallel calcite veins and satellite veins*

165 In the three sites the BPFs consist of bedding-parallel mineralized veins which are tens of
166 millimetres thick and continuous across the thin sections. These veins are filled with calcite crystals
167 and are referred to below as calcite veins (e.g., (C.V.) in Fig. 4). Their infilling consists of large
168 crystals with a blocky to elongate blocky morphology (Figs. 4 and 5a). The elongate crystals are
169 several micrometres to millimetres long and orthogonal to the edges of the veins (syntaxial vein, see
170 *Bons et al., 2012*). In all sites, most crystals are twinned and contain many solid inclusions giving
171 them a characteristic “dirty” aspect (Fig. 4). The calcite crystals, the traces of solid inclusions and the
172 clays in the wall rocks have a similar dark orange colour in CL images, indicating an equilibrium

173 between the host rock and the veins (Fig. 6). In Saint-Didier and Espréaux, the veins are sealed by the
174 elongate crystals, whereas cavities are observed between the crystals in Trescléoux (e.g., (Cav.) in Fig.
175 4c). The cavities are elongate and partly filled with successive layers of crystal that display internal
176 zoning. The first layer from the elongate crystals consists of very thin, concentric and untwinned
177 “clean” calcite crystals, appearing orange with alternative brightness in CL images (Fig. 6d). This
178 alternation is interpreted as an overgrowth, with interruption of the fluid flow marked by toothless,
179 dissolved crystals. The second layer corresponds to an iron oxide filling that appears yellow in plane
180 polarized light. Finally, the last layer before open cavities is made of fibrous crystals that are not
181 luminescent in CL (Fig. 6d). In addition to the calcite veins described above, narrow veins, referred to
182 as satellite veins, have also been observed (e.g., (S.V.) in Fig. 4). In Espréaux, these veins are
183 composed of small or large calcite crystals that are fibrous with fibres that are perpendicular to the
184 vein margins, and thus to bedding (e.g., Fig. 4e).

185

186 3.2. Crack-seal veins and pull-apart veins

187 In the three studied sites the BPFs also consist of a series of successive, *en échelon*,
188 mineralized veinlets that are separated by thin wall-rock slices (e.g., (C.S.) in Fig.4). These structures
189 are interpreted to result from a crack-seal mechanism. Accordingly, the veinlets are considered as
190 opening fractures that formed between overstepping shear planes (microfaults) and due to periodic
191 fracturing and sealing during slip increments (e.g., Ramsay, 1980; Gaviglio, 1986; Labaume et al.,
192 1991; Fowler, 1996; Renard et al., 2005). The array of successive veinlets and wall-rock slices (crack-
193 seal bands) together compose a vein, referred to as a crack-seal vein, that is parallel to bedding. The
194 microfaults bounding the crack-seal veins are also parallel to bedding implying a bedding-parallel
195 shear. In Espréaux several crack-seal veins that are millimetres thick are juxtaposed on top of each
196 other (Figs. 4e and 5d). The individual veinlets within the crack-seal veins are closely spaced and dip
197 to the west at a mean 35° to 60° angle to bedding. Some veinlets are curved, which may be due to
198 deflected stresses and/or rotations produced by the shear movement. In Trescléoux, the crack-seal
199 veins are typically located at the edge of the calcite veins and are bound by slip surfaces that are not
200 well-preserved ((C.S.) in Figs. 4c and 6c). The veinlets are observed between well-developed wall

201 rock slices, are more spaced than in Espréaux, appear sinuous, and dip at 45° to bedding. In Saint-
202 Didier, the crack-seal veins are thinner (infra-millimetric). The veinlets have a shallower dip and are
203 filled with calcite crystals (<50µm) with a blocky texture ((C.S.) in Figs. 4a and 6a).

204 Slip along the BPFs is further demonstrated in Espréaux by mineralized pull-apart veins of
205 various sizes (up to a centimetre long) that display a lozenge shape (rhomboid) (e.g., Figs. 5e and 6f).
206 These pull-apart veins sometimes superpose on top of each other forming a composite pull-apart vein
207 (e.g., Figs. 5e and 6f). The crystals within these veins are often elongated in the direction parallel to
208 the BPF, the vein walls are west-dipping (e.g., Fig. 6f) and crack-seal morphologies are sometimes
209 present on the vein walls (Fig. 5e). These pull-apart veins are interpreted as having formed in
210 extensional stepovers between microfault segments (e.g., *Peacock et al., 1995*). The opening direction
211 is sub-parallel to bedding and the shear sense is similar to that responsible of the crack-seal veins
212 described above.

213

214 3.3. Breccia

215 In Saint-Didier, the BPF appears locally as a zone of breccia ((Br.) in Fig.4 a and b). Calcite
216 crystals of the calcite veins are sometimes preserved on the rim of the BPF, whereas the BPF is filled
217 with microbreccia in the centre. The microbreccia is made up of angular clasts of calcite and wall-rock
218 fragments (less than a few mm) floating within a clay matrix (Fig. 4 a and b). CL analysis shows that
219 the calcite crystals in the microbreccia have a brighter orange colour than the calcite crystals in the
220 calcite veins (Fig. 6b), indicating the presence of new fluid. The breccia also contains broken crystals
221 (0.25 mm) from the former calcite veins. No breccia are observed in Trescléoux and Espréaux thin
222 sections, but we recognize zones of significant shearing in Espréaux. These zones are described in the
223 next sub-section.

224

225 3.4. Stylolites and other calcite-filled features

226 In the three sites, the calcite veins, satellite veins, crack-seal veins, and pull-apart veins are
227 most often separated from each other or from the hosting clays by well defined straight surfaces.
228 However, some veins are bounded by stylolite planes that occur at the clay/calcite boundary ((St.) in

229 Fig. 4). Such planes are also observed within the calcite veins. Like the calcite veins, the stylolites are
230 sub-parallel to BPF. The amount of dissolution associated with these stylolites is difficult to estimate
231 and may be significant. Stylolite planes appear more frequently in Espréaux and Saint-Didier than in
232 Trescléoux, which may indicate that pressure solution is more pronounced in these sites.

233 Other mineralized structures are observed in Espréaux (Fig. 7). Despite the uncertainty in their
234 interpretation, two microstructures that suggest shearing are worth mentioning. The first one
235 corresponds to rectangular and discontinuous veins filled with large crystals (Fig. 7 a and b). These
236 angular structures are interpreted as broken fragments of the calcite veins which have been toggled and
237 rotated within a clay-rich matrix. Finally, small dimension (tens of micrometres) and mineralized
238 structures with fuzzy boundaries are observed ((F. V.) in Figs. 7e and f). These structures seem to
239 have an *en échelon* arrangement, which can be used as a shear sense indicator. The kinematics of these
240 structures are discussed further in sub-section 4.3.

241

242 **4. Microstructures interpretations and kinematics**

243

244 *4.1. Saint-Didier*

245 The microstructures described in Section 3 suggest that different movements occurred along
246 the BPF plane (Tab. 1). The calcite veins with elongate-blocky crystals are interpreted as syntaxial
247 veins, with an opening direction normal to bedding (*Bons et al., 2012*). CL images show that the solid
248 inclusions observed within the calcite veins are fragments of the wall rock and that the fluid that filled
249 the BPFs and the hosting rock were in equilibrium. The crack-seal veins indicate a shear opening (*Cox*
250 *et al., 1983; Cox, 1987; Labaume et al., 1991; Koehn and Passchier, 2000*). They are parallel to
251 bedding with internal veinlets that are westward dipping, suggesting a movement parallel to bedding
252 and with a top-to-the-west shear sense. The normal faults are mostly dipping west and also have a top-
253 to-the-west movement (Figs. 2 and 3). The BPF and the normal faults have therefore a synthetic
254 movement. We have not found any direct microscopic evidence to constrain the chronology between
255 opening and shearing, but CL images indicate that the fluids that circulated during these two events
256 were in equilibrium. The stylolites are sub-parallel to the BPF. They affect the calcite veins and

257 therefore the dissolution postdated the opening. Finally, the microbreccia is composed of clasts from
258 the calcite veins and is associated with a different fluid. These observations suggest that the
259 microbreccia also postdated both the opening and shearing event. This microbreccia is thought to
260 result from seismic cataclastic events (*Boullier et al., 2004*), but the absence of markers prevents
261 determining the shear sense.

262

263 4.2. Trescléoux

264 The microstructures observed in Trescléoux suggest opening, shearing and pressure solution,
265 like in Saint-Didier site (Tab. 1). The elongate-blocky morphology of the crystals in the calcite veins
266 suggest an opening normal to the BPF, i.e., an opening subperpendicular to bedding. The geometry of
267 the crack-seal veins and associated veinlets indicates a movement parallel to bedding and top-to-the-
268 west, which is synthetic to the movement of the normal faults. The crack-seal veins are located at the
269 edges of the calcite veins. According to the CL images, the crystals in the calcite veins and the crack-
270 seal veins were derived from the same fluid that is in equilibrium with the hosting rock (Fig. 6).
271 Stylolitisation of the calcite veins and probably of the crack seal veins indicate a dissolution at high
272 angle to bedding that appears to be the last phase of deformation. Further crystallisations are observed
273 around cavities within the calcite veins. Crystal zoning by optic and catodoluminescence and
274 crystallisations that isopachously follow the irregularities of the cavity walls are indicative of growth
275 into cavities. The CL images indicate that these crystals were derived from another fluid during an
276 across-strata or larger scale fluid circulation.

277

278 4.3. Espréaux

279 The calcite veins, crack-seal veins and stylolites indicate opening, shearing and stylolitization
280 along the BPFs, like for the two other sites (Tab. 1). Crystals in the calcite veins are occasionally
281 elongate with a direction of maximum extension perpendicular to the BPFs, implying an opening
282 perpendicular to bedding. This opening direction is confirmed by the fibrous morphology of the
283 crystals in the satellite veins, considering that the fibres that are oriented normal to bedding follow the

284 opening trajectory. The geometry of the crack-seal veins indicates a movement parallel to bedding
285 with a top-to-the-west shear sense. This shear sense is further confirmed by the pull-apart veins that
286 have west-dipping walls. Contrary to the other sites, this movement is not synthetic to that of the
287 normal faults, implying that it does not originate from the same phase of extension but from another
288 tectonic event (see sub-section 5.1). The CL images indicate that the sealing of the pull-apart veins, the
289 calcite veins and the crack-seals veins were derived from a fluid in equilibrium with the host rock.

290 The kinematics of the small dimension mineralized structures (Fig. 7f) are difficult to
291 characterize due to their fuzzy aspect. We recognized an *en échelon* pattern with an east-dipping trend.
292 We tentatively infer a top-to-the-east shear movement, with development of T or R Riedel fractures.
293 These fractures may attest for a first movement synthetic to that of the normal faults. Later sliding in
294 the opposite direction then stretched these fractures. Finally, the rectangular mineralized elements are
295 interpreted as broken segments of the calcite veins forming imbricated structures in clay due to a top-
296 to-the-west shear movement (Fig.7c). This movement postdates the opening event and is in agreement
297 with the sliding episode that produced the sub-parallel sets of *en échelon* crack-seal bands in this site.
298 Alternatively, the observed arrangement may result from a clockwise rotation of the broken pieces of
299 the calcite veins during a shear movement synthetic to that of the normal faults (Fig. 7d).

300

301 5. Discussion

302 The microstructures of the bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) observed in clay-rich layers of the
303 Southeast Basin of France, reflect a complex deformation history with a range of movements that
304 includes bedding-normal opening, bedding-parallel shearing and pressure solution. In the next sub-
305 sections, we combine the microstructural information with the outcrop observations to discuss the
306 possible origins, mechanisms of formation and geological settings of BPFs in general.

307

308 5.1. BPFs and regional tectonic history

309 Bedding-parallel shear movements are associated with crack-seal bands on the studied BPFs,
310 which is consistent with previous observations in other areas (Fowler, 1996; Koehn and Passchier,
311 2000; Fagereng and Byrnes, 2015). The orientations of the slickenlines on the BPFs indicate that the

312 shear movements likely occurred during the Oligocene extension and the Pyrenean and/or Alpine
313 orogenies (Figs. 1 and 2). The BPFs also contain calcite veins with elongate blocky textures and
314 fibrous crystals, which are interpreted to be produced by bedding-parallel openings (*Bons et al., 2012*).
315 Finally, bedding-parallel stylolites are recognized in the three studied sites, implying pressure
316 solutions. The stylolites postdate the opening of the calcite veins and probably also the crack-seal
317 veins. Breccia, “broken veins” and imbricate structures are also observed in a few thin sections and
318 these could be associated with an increase in the magnitude of the shear movements and/or in the fluid
319 pressure.

320 The absolute age of the microstructures are prone to uncertainties but the relative chronologies
321 described above help to constrain potential models of formation and evolution of BPFs in the
322 geological context of the Southeast Basin of France (Fig. 8). The different models presented in Figure
323 8 are intended to provide insight into the range of potential movements and associated microstructures
324 of BPFs during a polyphase deformation history in general. The mechanical conditions required for
325 these models are discussed further in sub-section 5.2.

326 In Model 1, all the microstructures are formed during the Oligocene, i.e., monophase
327 deformation (Fig. 8). Calcite veins and crack-seal veins can be due to a succession of alternating
328 opening and shearing, which can potentially be associated with a “crack-seal/slip” model (*Petit et al.,*
329 *1999*). Stylolites can then dissolve the calcite veins with an orientation that is compatible with the
330 vertical direction of the maximum principal stress. While this scenario can eventually apply in Saint-
331 Didier site where there is no evidence of reactivation, it is unlikely in Espréaux and Trescléoux where
332 the BPFs bear slickenlines with two radically distinct orientations.

333 In the two other models presented in Figure 8, the BPFs result from a polyphase deformation.
334 In Model 3, the calcite veins have formed before the Oligocene extension and the associated normal
335 faults. They may have opened due to fluid overpressures, which have hydraulically jacked apart near-
336 horizontal bedding planes during the Mesozoic burial history. Alternatively, they may have formed as
337 tectonic fractures opening perpendicularly to the maximal principal stress direction during the
338 Pyrenean orogeny. In Model 2, the calcite veins formed during the Alpine orogeny. Thus, depending

339 on the age of the calcite veins, the BPFs either have initiated as shear planes in low dipping sequences
340 during the Oligocene extension (Model 2) or have reactivated previous opening structures (Model 3).
341 In addition, three possible origins can be proposed for the stylolites, based on models which have been
342 described in the literature (*Nitecki, 1962, Toussaint et al., 2018*). They may have originated (1) as
343 sedimentary stylolites during the Mesozoic burial history, (2) as tectonic stylolite planes oriented
344 perpendicularly to the direction of maximal principal stress during the Oligocene extension, and (3) as
345 slickolites in restraining steps due to the slips on the BPFs. In Model 2, the opening occurred late in
346 the BPF history, the stylolites that postdate the opening have therefore a tectonic nature (origin 3). By
347 contrast, if the opening occurred early, then the three origins described above (origins 1-3) may apply
348 in the studied sites (Model 3).

349 The models in Figure 8 illustrate that BPFs can be polyphase structures that are active during
350 successive deformational events. This concurs with the findings of *Séjourné et al. (2005)* that describe
351 five different senses of slip motion on a series of BPFs in the Saint-Dominique carbonate slice
352 (southern Quebec Appalachian structural front), which are consistent with folding, thrusting, strike-
353 slip faulting and normal faulting. The existence of long-lived BPFs has the following implications: (1)
354 BPFs can be used as a marker of past deformation events to reconstruct complex deformation history,
355 (2) BPFs can appear as relatively simple planes at the macroscale, despite a complex deformation
356 history, and (3) BPFs can be considered as a plane of weakness in the geological medium.

357

358 5.2. Mechanical insight into bedding-parallel faulting in sedimentary rocks

359 Microstructural and outcrop observations indicate that shearing (and eventually opening)
360 occurred along the BPFs during normal faulting and before folding. This is in line with the results of
361 recent publications that describe BPFs associated with normal faults in shallow dipping sequences
362 ($<10^\circ$; *Delogkos et al., 2017; Alsop et al., 2020*). Shearing in such conditions appear mechanically
363 unfavourable and can be related to several driven mechanisms. First, the mechanical anisotropy of the
364 clay-rich rocks can promote failure and slip, even if the foliation is not optimally oriented (*Cobbold et*

365 *al.*, 2013; *Fagereng et al.*, 2010). Second, even at low magnitudes, a local tilting of the bedding could
366 enhance shearing along the foliation. Finally, fluid pressure may have a role, but the BPFs in the
367 studied areas have a relatively small thickness (mm thick), which may suggest a limited pore pressure.
368 Concerning the opening of the BPFs, it is expected to occur under low differential stress. Such
369 conditons are generally encountered at low depth, but also exist at a more significant depth in clay rich
370 rocks with a very low stiffness (*Warpinski and Teufel*, 1991) or in relations with ductile flow in the
371 clay (*Cornet and Röckel*, 2012)

372 There is a widespread occurrence of crack-seal veins associated with shear opening on the
373 studied BPFs and on BPFs from other areas (*Fowler*, 1996; *Koehn and Passchier*, 2000; *Fagereng*
374 *and Byrnes*, 2015). Considering that these crack-seals are formed in extensional stepovers, this
375 suggests that the BPFs are segmented by nature, independently of their origin. Moreover, the crack-
376 seal veins indicate that the displacement is accommodated by small increments. The slippage is
377 therefore expected to be associated with a seismic activity of low magnitude (*Fagereng et al.*, 2010).
378 Nevertheless, more significant seismic activities could potentially occur and be marked by
379 microstructures like breccia and imbricate structures as those observed in the studied sites.

380 The repeated activity of the BPFs during successive tectonic phases lead us to consider these
381 structures as planes of weakness in the geological medium. However, the calcite mineralizations that
382 filled the BPFs are probably “stronger” than the surrounding clays. This inconsistency demonstrates
383 that the process of reactivation is not necessarily associated with intrinsically weak planes. On the
384 contrary, we propose that reactivation is promoted at boundaries between materials of different nature
385 or inherited mechanical heterogeneities, i.e., the vein/clay edges in this study. A similar process occurs
386 for dyke walls that are often the locus of faulting in volcanic areas (e.g., *Karson et al.*, 2018). It is also
387 in agreement with the idea that preferential growth of fault is not positively correlated with the
388 intrinsic weakness properties of faults (*Walsh et al.*, 2001). This process of ‘forced slip’ is likely
389 driven by stress concentrations that occur in heterogeneous medium (e.g., *Gudmundsson and*
390 *Homberg*, 1999; *Gunzberger and Cornet*, 2007), but the geological conditions where forced slip may
391 control the fault pattern and slip accumulation through time are still to be investigated.

392

393 5.3. Driving mechanisms behind BPF formation at the regional scale

394 The studied BPFs show shear movement during an extensional regime in all the studied sites,
395 as well as shear movement during a compressional regime in two of the studied sites. The compression
396 related-slip can be attributed to a flexural slip mechanism during layer-parallel folding (e.g., *Tanner,*
397 *1989; Fowler, 1996; Koehn and Passchier, 2000; Fagereng et al., 2010*). However, while flexural slip
398 can be important in Espréaux where the BPF lie on the limb of a tight fold, it is likely less important in
399 Trescléoux where the bedding is sub-horizontal.

400 The shear movements during the extensional regime confirm other publications showing that
401 BPFs may form in such context for a limited local tilting of the bedding ($<10^\circ$) (*Smart et al., 2009;*
402 *Delogkos et al., 2018; Alsop et al., 2020*). The movements on the BPFs could be attributed to a
403 flexural slip mechanism due to normal fault-related folding (*Watterson et al., 1998; Ferrill et al.,*
404 *2007; Smart et al., 2009; Delogkos et al., 2018*) or to gravity-driven downslope deformations (e.g.,
405 *Alsop et al., 2020*). The latter is unlikely in the studied areas, considering that the rocks have been
406 deeply buried before the formation of the BPF. More generally, the exact origin of the extension-
407 related bedding-parallel shearing remains uncertain. Two models can nevertheless be proposed, which
408 are differing in how the BPFs and the normal faults relate. In the first model (Fig. 9a), the mesoscale
409 normal faults are formed to accommodate the motions between overstepping BPFs. Equivalent
410 geometries, referred to as “ramp-flat-ramp normal faults” and releasing relay zones, have been
411 described previously by *Pedreira et al. (2012)* in alternating sandy and silt layers of the Huércal-Overa
412 Basin and by *Delogkos et al. (2018)* in intercalated lignites and alluvial deposits of the Ptolemais
413 Basin, respectively. The orientation and displacement of the normal faults are hereby governed by the
414 BPF motion. Alternatively, the BPFs and the normal faults can be formed independently and express
415 different modes of brittle failure in multilayer materials (Fig. 9b). Considering the large angle between
416 the far-field maximum principal stress and the BPF in an extensional regime, a failure along a BPF in
417 clay units does not fit the Anderson model, whilst it does along a high dipping normal fault. We refer
418 to this as “bi-modal” faulting, which can be a characteristic mode of deformation of anisotropic rocks.
419 “Bi-modal” faulting is likely to develop in multilayer sequences containing isotropic and anisotropic

420 rocks, but its origin need to be investigated. In the two models, BPFs and normal faults may strongly
421 interact at some evolved stages.

422

423 **Conclusions**

424 The microstructural descriptions of bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) sampled in clay-rich layers of the
425 Southeast Basin of France evidenced that these faults are composed of different microstructures. These
426 microstructures include subparallel calcite veins, crack-seal veins, pull-apart veins, microfaults,
427 stylolites and breccia. Both opening and shearing that are perpendicular and parallel to bedding,
428 respectively result in fluid channelling in the BPFs through repeated crack and seal events. The
429 observations support a complex deformation history of BPFs. Sliding occurred under an extensional
430 stress regime during the Oligocene and the BPFs strongly interacted with surrounding normal faults.
431 The BPFs were also reactivated in an opposite sense during the basin inversion. This study highlights
432 that BPFs are relevant markers of past deformation events to reconstruct complex deformation history.
433 They can represent well developed brittle structures in shallow or highly dipping foliated rocks and
434 influence the growth of other fractures.

435

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437

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441

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- 569

570

| | | Saint-Didier | Trescléoux | Espréaux |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|----------|
| BPF Samples | | | | |
| Number of distinct BPFs | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Number of thin sections | | 3 | 7 | 12 |
| Types of microstructures | Kinematics | Number of thin sections | | |
| Calcite veins | Opening ⁽¹⁾ | 3 | 7 | 12 |
| Crack-seal veins | Shearing ⁽²⁾ | 1 SNF | 1, SNF | 2, ANF |
| Pull-aparts veins | Shearing ⁽²⁾ | | | 1 ANF |
| Breccia | Intense shearing ⁽²⁾ | 3, US | | |
| Broken veins | Intense shearing ⁽²⁾ | | | 1, US |
| Fuzzy structures | Shearing? | | | 1, SNF |
| Stylolitized planes | Dissolution | 1 | 5 | 6 |

571

572

573 **Tab. 1:** Type and interpretation of microstructures observed in thin sections.

574 Four bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) were targeted in Espréaux, only two of them were successfully

575 retrieved. The numbers of thin sections showing each microstructure type is indicated in column for

576 each site. (1): Opening indicates an opening movement perpendicular to the BPF. (2): SNF and ANF

577 denote shearing (i.e., sliding) with a shear sense that is synthetic (SNF) or antithetic (ANF) with the

578 neighboring normal faults, i.e., movement in the same opposite direction as that of the hanging wall

579 movement of the normal faults, respectively. US: shearing with unknown sense.

580

581 **Fig. 1:** Simplified geological map of the North West region of the Southeast Basin of France582 (modified from *Roche et al. (2014)*) and tectonic calendar of the basin. Tectonic events are based on583 analyses from *Constantin et al. (2012)*, *Lamarche et al. (2012)*, *Homberg et al. (2013)* and references

584 therein. Light grey and dark grey indicate extensional and compressive deformation phases,

585 respectively. The ages of the formations hosting the bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) are indicated by a

586 black arrow. The BPFs are located in Saint-Didier, Trescléoux and Espréaux sites.

587

588 **Fig. 2:** Context of bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) and sampling in Trescléoux (a), Espréaux (b) and

589 Saint-Didier (c). Normal faults (NF), offsetting the limestone and clay layers, and the bedding-parallel

590 faults (BPFs) are indicated. The limestone and clay layers are represented in light and dark grey,

591 respectively. The numbering indicates the location of the BPF sampling for the thin sections.

592 Examples of details of sampling are presented in the right panel.

593

594 **Fig. 3:** Stereographic projections (lower-hemisphere, equal-area projection) for the Saint-Didier site
 595 (a), the Trescléoux site (b) and the Espréaux site (c). Data for the bedding-parallel faults (BPFs), the
 596 normal faults and the strike-slip faults are back-tilted using the average tilting of the bedding. Solid
 597 circles: fracture planes. Small black dots and arrows: slickenlines. n: the number of data. Stars with 5,
 598 4, 3 branches: maximal (σ_1), intermediate(σ_2), and minimal (σ_3) principal stress. Divergent and
 599 convergent arrows: directions of the extension (σ_3) and compression (σ_1). Small blue and red dots:
 600 slickenlines on the BPFs that are coherent with the direction of extension (blue) and the direction of
 601 compression (red) found using the normal faults and the strike slip faults, respectively.

602

603

604 **Fig. 4:** Thin sections of bedding-parallel faults (BPFs). (a) and (b): Saint-Didier; (c): Trescléoux; (d)
 605 and (e): Espréaux. (a-e). Different microstructures are observed. C.V.: Calcite vein; Cl.: Clays (wall
 606 rock); C.S.: Crack-seal vein; S.V.: Satellite vein; St.: Stylolite; Br.: Breccia; Cav.: Cavity. Location of
 607 details illustrated in Figures 5 and 6. So: Bedding.

608

609 **Fig. 5:** Details of microstructures within bedding-parallel faults (BPFs). (a) Elongate blocky crystal
 610 morphology in Saint Didier. (b) Shallow dipping veinlets in crack-seal veins indicating a top-to-the-
 611 west movement in Saint Didier. West is to the right. (c) Stylolite in calcite veins in Espréaux in optics
 612 and cathodoluminescence. (d) Supperposed crack-seal veins in Espréaux. (e) Pull-apart veins in
 613 Espréaux. (a-e) C.V.: Calcite vein; Cl.: Clays (wall rock); C.S.: Crack-seal vein; S.V.: Satellite vein;
 614 St.: Stylolite. So: Bedding.

615

616

617 **Fig. 6:** Details of the microstructures in transmitted light and cathodoluminescence. (a) and (b): Saint
 618 Didier (c-e): Trescléoux; (f) and (g): Espréaux. (a) Bedding veins and clays in wall rock display a dark
 619 orange colour. (b) Breccia with a brighter orange than the calcite forming initially the BPF, indicating
 620 different fluid generations. (c) Caclite vein and crack-seal veins. (d) Cavities infiling with various

621 fluids. (e) Calcite veins and stylolites. (g) Pull-apart veins. (a-f) C.V.: Calcite vein; C.S.: Crack-seal
 622 vein; S.V.: Satellite vein; St.: Stylolite; Br.: Breccia; Cav.: Cavity. So: Bedding.

623

624 **Fig. 7:** (a) Complex zone of shearing in Espréaux showing angular fragments of calcite veins in a
 625 clay-rich matrix. (a) General view. (b) Detail view. (c) Model for the formation of the microstructures
 626 in (a) with imbrication. Shear movement of the clay in a shear zone generates failure, imbrication and
 627 rotation of the calcite vein fragments. (d) Alternative model for the formation of the microstructures in
 628 (a) with rotations and fragmentation of the BPF. (e) Examples of complex microstructures observed at
 629 Espréaux. (f) Detail of echelon fuzzy structures and crack-seals. (a-f) C.V.: Calcite vein; Cl.: Wall
 630 rock; C.S.: Crack-seal vein; S.V.: Satellite vein; St.: Stylolite; S.Z.: shear zone; F.V.:Fuzzy vein. So:
 631 Bedding.

632

633 **Fig. 8:** Models for bedding-parallel fault history. In model 1, bedding-parallel faults (BPFs) are
 634 monophasic and all microstructures formed during the same tectonic event. In models 2 and 3, BPFs
 635 are polyphase structures and were active during successive deformational events of the basin. In model
 636 2, BPFs first slipped during the Oligocene extensional tectonics and were later reactivated during the
 637 alpine inversion. In model 3, the BPFs initiated as opening fracture and were reactivated during all
 638 subsequent tectonic events. Time uncertainty for opening and pressure solution is indicated by grey
 639 arrow. Each model reflects the successive movements along the BPFs deduced from microstructures
 640 and outcrop observations: shearing (blue during extensional tectonics and red during compressional
 641 tectonics) and opening normal to bedding. See text for more details and mechanical implication.
 642 Model 1 does not apply for the studied BPFs (except eventually in Saint-Didier site), but may
 643 represent other example of BPFs. Examples from this study support a long-lived history of BPFs.

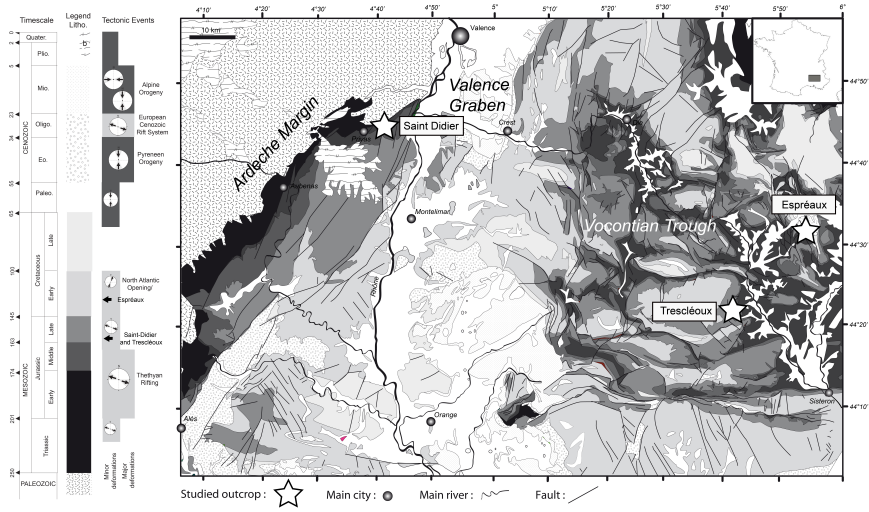
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645 **Fig. 9:** Cartoons illustrating two potential contexts of formation of bedding-parallel faults (BPFs). (a)
 646 A segmented BPF formed due to flexural slip mechanism to accommodate bed-parallel slip. Slip is
 647 partitioned along different segments of the BPF and normal faults occur in the releasing steps (e.g.,
 648 *Pedreira et al., 2012; Delogkos et al., 2018*). Arrows: shear sense. (b) Bi-modal faulting in multilayer

649 rocks. Failure follows the Andersonian mode in the limestones (high dipping normal faults are
650 formed) whereas it does not in the clays (BFPs are formed). These two types of faults later propagate
651 and connect each other. Convergent and divergent arrows: compression and extension.

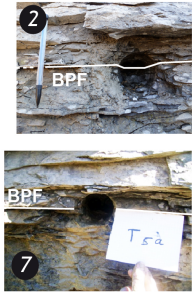
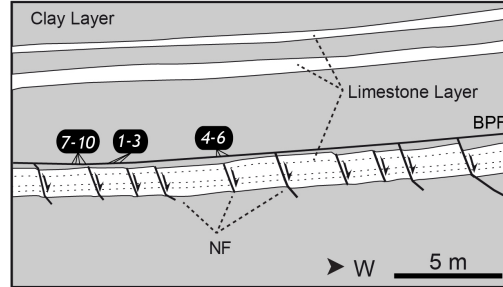
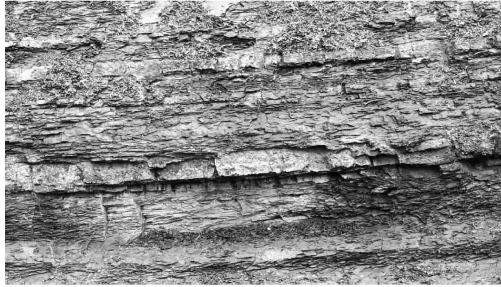
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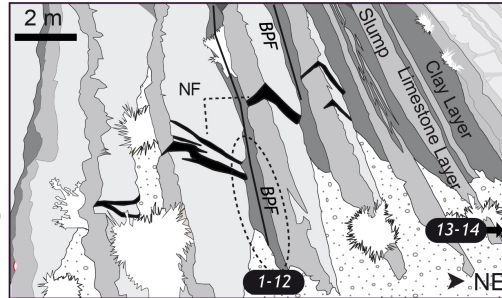


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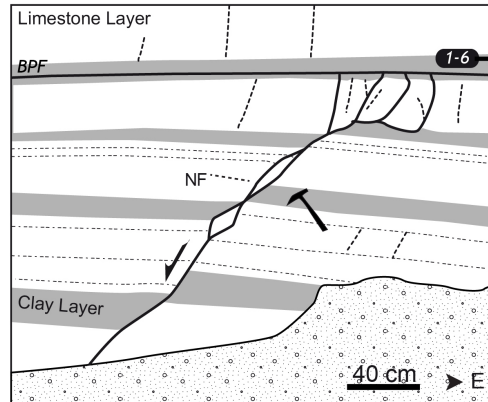
(a) Trescléoux



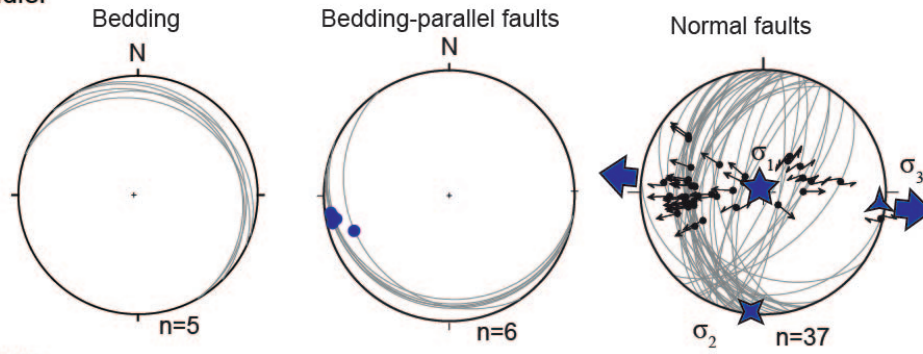
(b) Espréaux



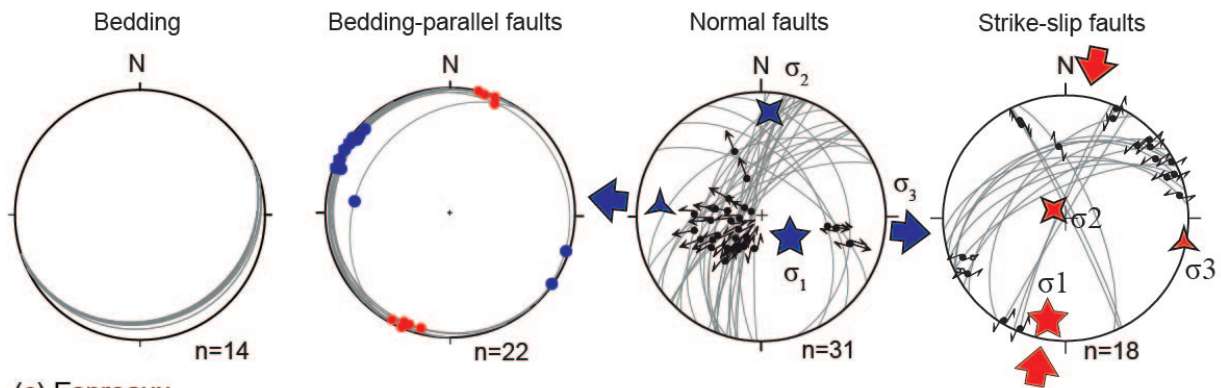
(c) Saint-Didier



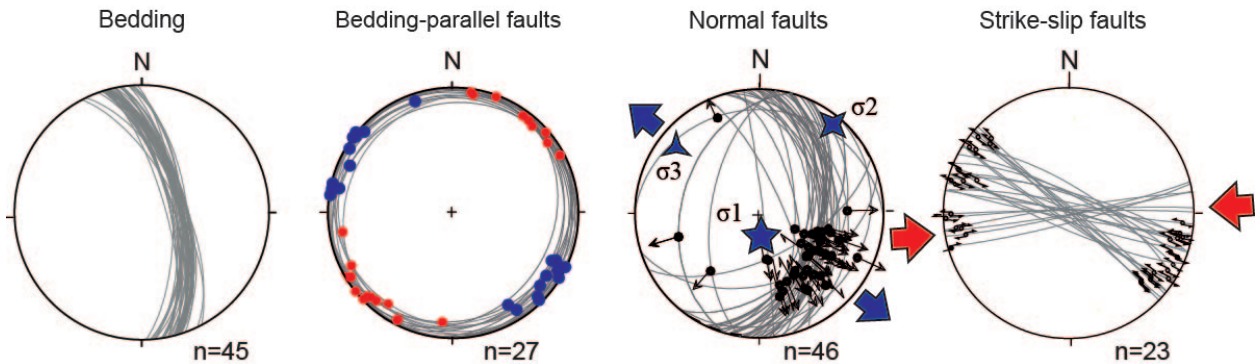
(a) Saint-Didier

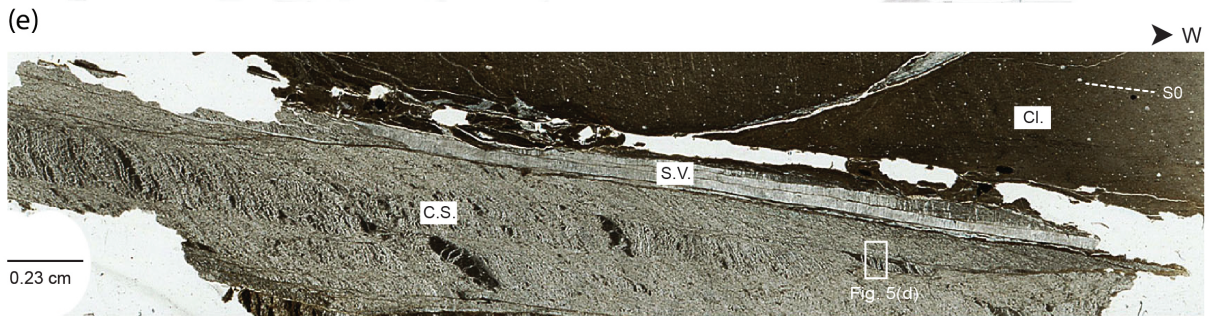
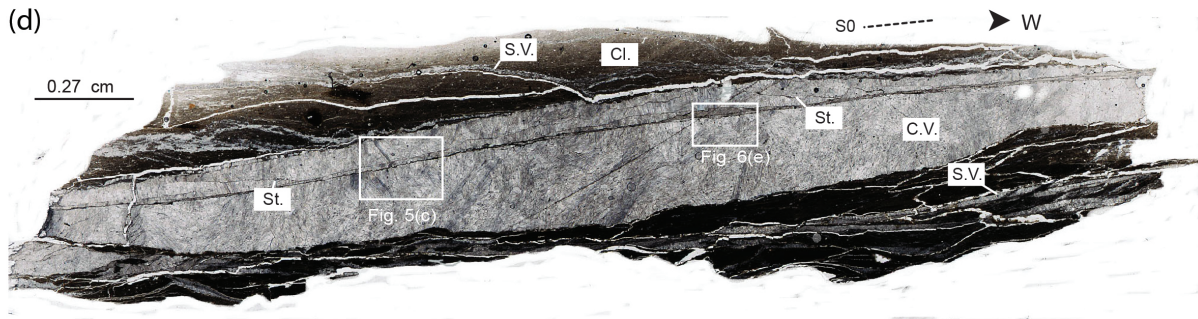
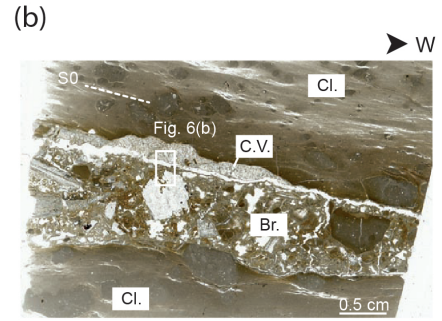
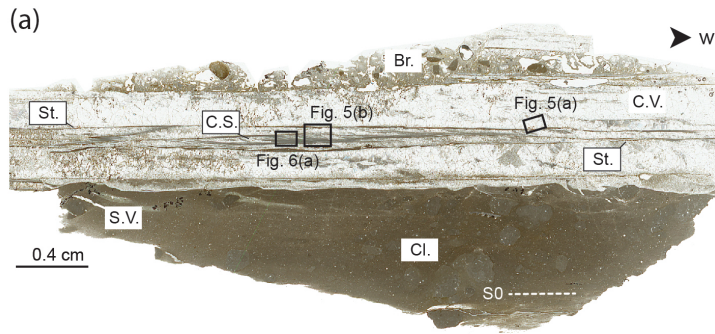


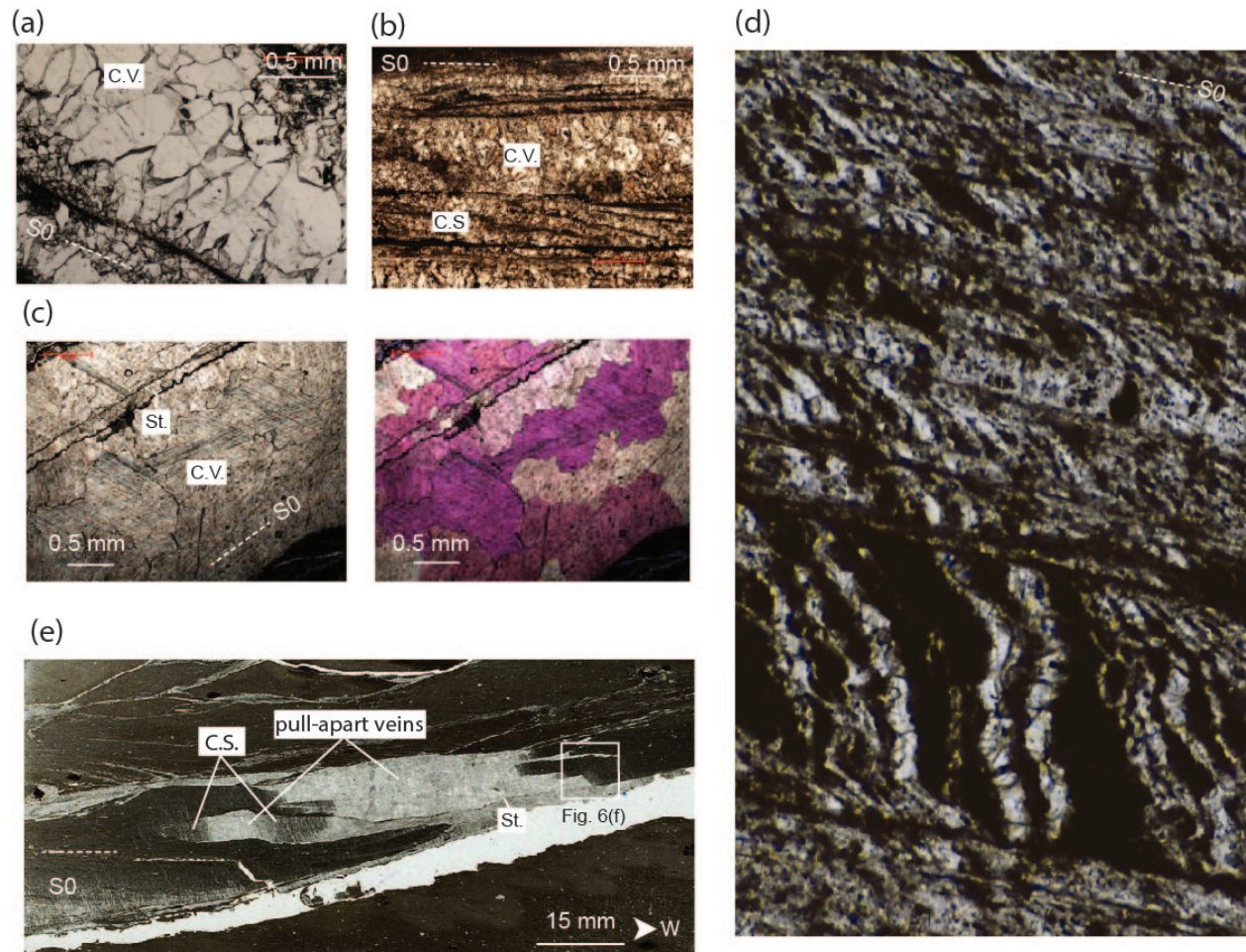
(b) Trescléoux



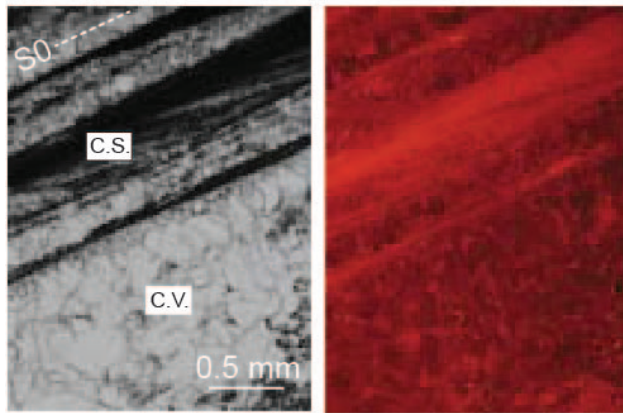
(c) Espreaux



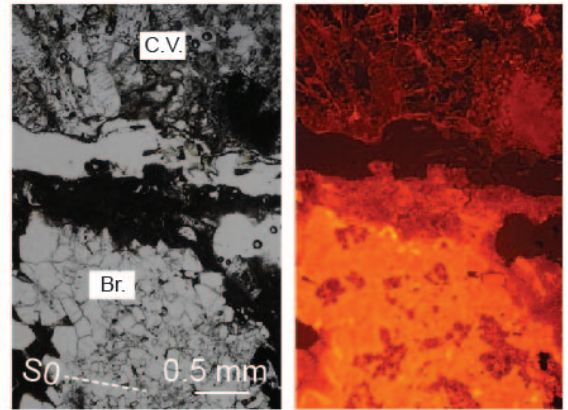




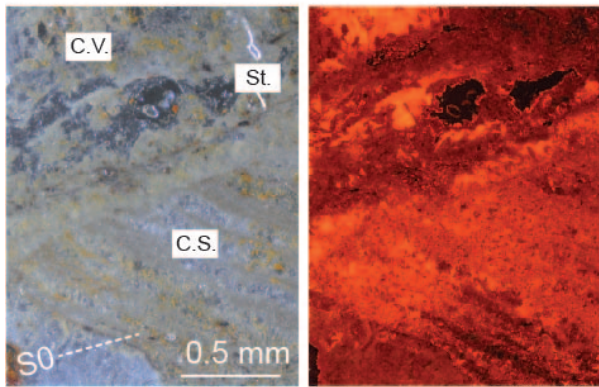
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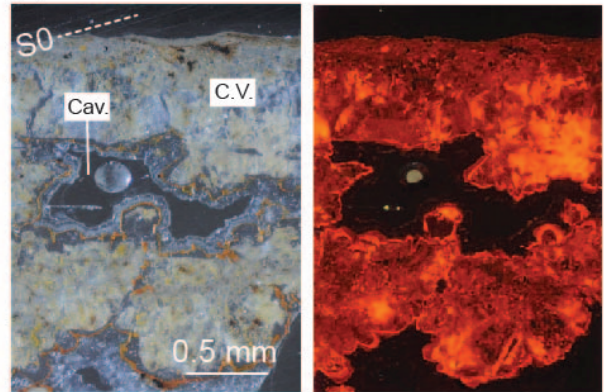
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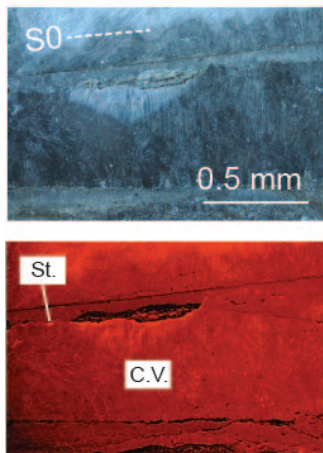
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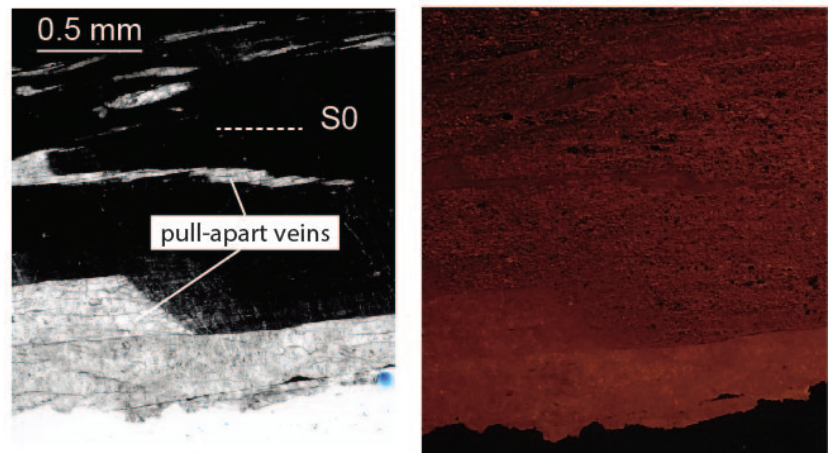
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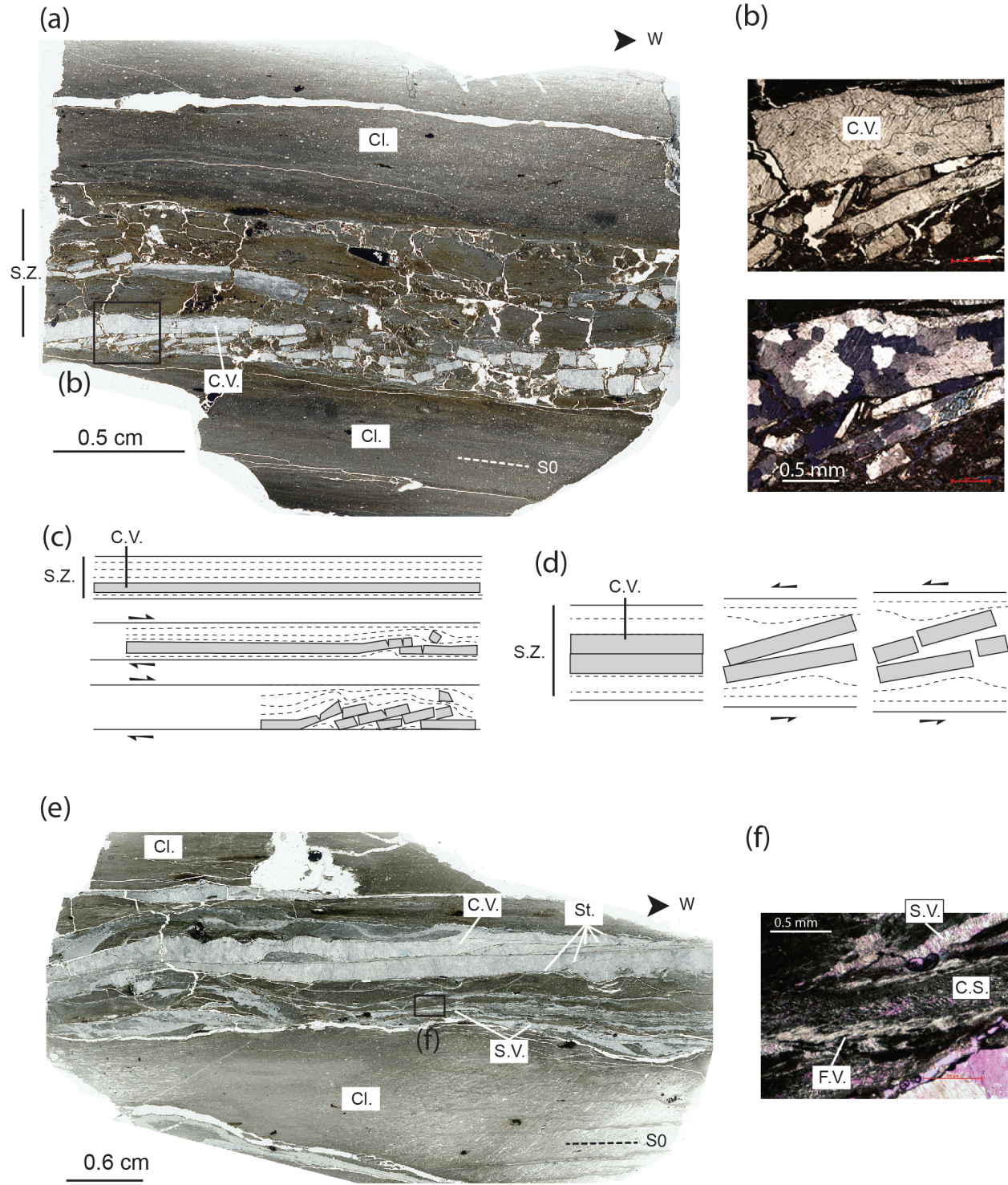


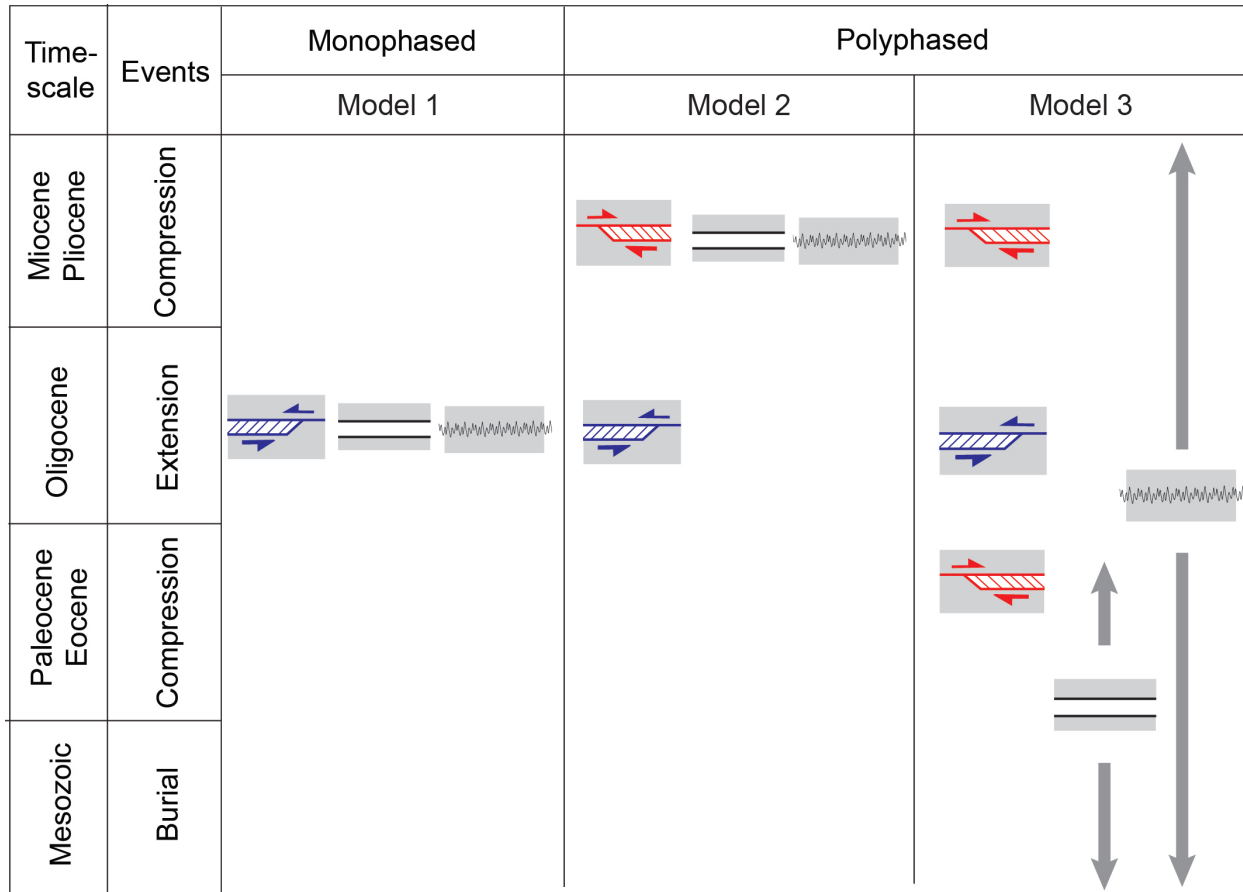
(e)





(f)

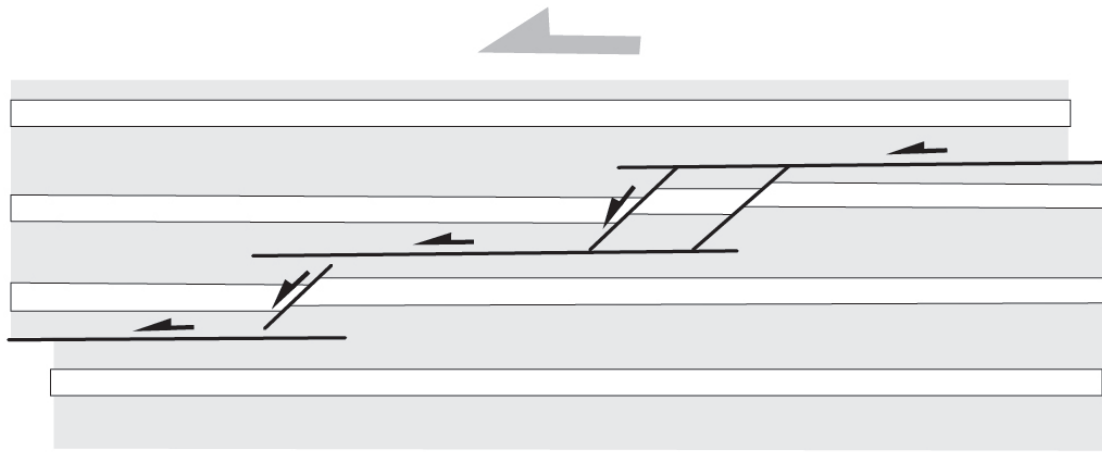




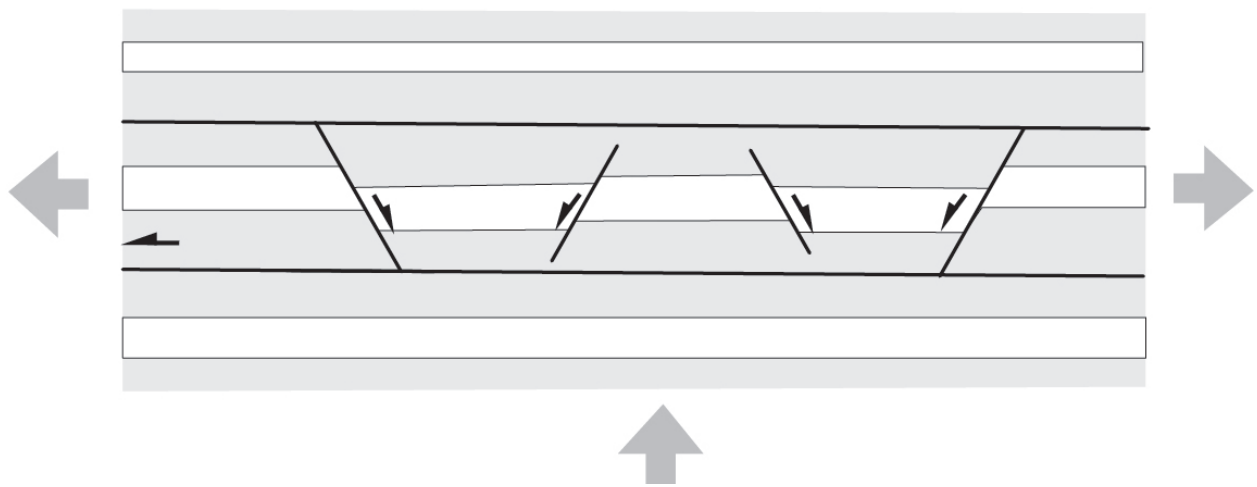


Legend: Shearing:   Opening:  Pressure solution: 

(a)



(b)



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They have seen and approved the final version of the manuscript being submitted. They warrant that the article is the *authors'* original work, hasn't received prior publication and isn't under consideration for publication elsewhere.

Sincerely, Catherine Homberg